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1 **Can environment or allergy explain international variation in prevalence of wheeze in**
2 **childhood?**

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24

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Abstract

Asthma prevalence in children varies substantially around the world, but the contribution of known risk factors to this international variation is uncertain.

The International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood (ISAAC) Phase Two studied 8-12 year old children in 30 centres worldwide with parent-completed symptom and risk factor questionnaires and aeroallergen skin prick testing. We used multilevel logistic regression modelling to investigate the effect of adjustment for individual and ecological risk factors on the between-centre variation in prevalence of recent wheeze.

Adjustment for single individual-level risk factors changed the centre-level variation from a reduction of up to 8% (and 9% for atopy) to an increase of up to 6%. Modelling the 11 most influential environmental factors among all children simultaneously, the centre-level variation changed little overall (2.4% increase). Modelling only factors that decreased the variance, the 6 most influential factors (synthetic and feather quilt, mother’s smoking, heating stoves, dampness and foam pillows) in combination resulted in a 21% reduction in variance. Ecological (centre-level) risk factors generally explained higher proportions of the variation than did individual risk factors.

Single environmental factors and aeroallergen sensitisation measured at the individual (child) level did not explain much of the between-centre variation in wheeze prevalence.

54

55 **Introduction**

56 Asthma poses an important health burden worldwide, but its aetiology is still not fully understood,
57 particularly in low- and middle-income countries. For instance, allergic mechanisms which have been
58 widely studied in high-income countries appear to be less important in less affluent settings [1].
59 There are substantial differences in childhood asthma prevalence worldwide [2] as described in
60 Phases One and Three of the International Study of Asthma and Allergy in Childhood (ISAAC), which
61 are also apparent in ISAAC Phase Two where allergic sensitization was assessed by aeroallergen skin
62 prick testing [3]. It is not known how much of this international variation in wheeze prevalence is
63 explained by differences in allergic sensitization or other individual-level risk factors. If the currently
64 well-established risk factors fail to explain a substantial part of the international variation this would
65 indicate that important risk factors are still undiscovered. In addition to these child-level risk factors
66 (e.g. the child is vaccinated against measles), contextual factors at the population level (e.g. the
67 proportion of the population that is vaccinated against measles), may also be relevant in determining
68 prevalence. Additionally, ecological (population-level) analyses may inform about risk factors that
69 vary little within a given population but vary markedly in prevalence between different populations,
70 e.g. factors related to a “Western” life style. Early attempts to exploit prevalence differences to
71 understand the role of individual level risk factors in allergic disease were undertaken in Germany
72 and China, by comparing one population with a highly Westernized lifestyle (e.g. West Germany,
73 Hong Kong) to a population of the same ethnic background that was much less Westernized (e.g.
74 East-Germany, mainland China) [4,5]. The Chinese study concluded that lifestyle and environmental
75 risk factors that varied between Hong Kong and mainland China could “explain away” the prevalence
76 difference between the two populations. However, such a comparison of only two centres is
77 inherently limited in terms of generalizability.

78 In this paper, we extended this approach to thirty diverse study centres, including the German and
79 Chinese centres previously studied, to quantify the extent to which known and suspected individual
80 and contextual (ecological) risk factors may explain the observed large international variation in the
81 prevalence of wheeze in children using data from ISAAC Phase Two.

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83

84 **METHODS**

85

86 **Study population and fieldwork**

87 The methods of ISAAC Phase Two have been described in detail elsewhere [3]. Briefly, random
88 samples of at least 10 schools from defined geographical areas were chosen and children ($n \geq 1000$)

89 per centre) attending classes with a majority of 9-11-year-olds were invited to participate.
90 Standardized parental questionnaires were used. In a few centres, skin prick tests and risk factor
91 questionnaires were carried out in stratified subsamples targeting 100 children with and without
92 wheeze in the past year, respectively (details see Online Resource).

93 Thirty centres in twenty two countries participated in the questionnaire survey and 29 centres from
94 21 countries performed the standardized skin prick test.

95

96

97 **Outcome:**

98 The main symptom of asthma used in this analysis was “wheeze in the past year”. Analyses were also
99 carried out separately for wheeze among atopic and among non-atopic children. Children were
100 defined as atopic if the skin prick test to any of the six aeroallergens (*Dermatophagoides*
101 *pteronyssinus*, *D. farinae*, cat dander, *Alternaria tenuis*, mixed tree pollen and mixed grass pollen) or
102 any other locally tested allergen was positive [1]. The standardized protocol can be found online [6].

103

104 **Exposures:**

105 The detailed questionnaire for environmental risk factors is available online [6] and covers
106 environmental and life style risk factors in the domains of early day exposures, diseases and
107 immunizations, the child’s home (indoor air, animals and other living conditions), exercise and food.

108 The questionnaire enquired “Have you made any changes in your home because your child had
109 asthma or allergic problems?”, with subsequent specifications which were each answered separately:
110 removed pets, stopped or reduced smoking, changed pillows, changed bedding, changed floor
111 covering. This helps us to address concerns about reverse causality in this cross-sectional study. We
112 compared child-level associations (within-centre) before and after exclusion of those reporting
113 changes to the relevant risk factor and present these results in supplementary table E2 on the Online
114 Resource

115 Furthermore, we retrieved potentially relevant ecological variables from publicly available data
116 sources (for detailed description see Online Resource). Because many potentially relevant factors are
117 not available from such sources we additionally derived, by aggregation, centre-level covariates from
118 the questionnaires: from the individual data on risk factors, we constructed ecological variables
119 giving the prevalence of the individual risk factor in the centre. – for details see Online Resource. We
120 did this for all available risk factors acknowledging that some of the resulting variables may be
121 indicators for other centre-level risk factors.

122

123 **Statistical approach**

124 In this analysis, we were interested in the variation of wheeze prevalence in this international
125 multicentre study that is due to true underlying variation between centres and not to the play of
126 chance (sampling error). We also sought to estimate how much of the non-sampling variation could
127 be explained by between-centre differences in the prevalence of individual or ecological factors
128 associated with wheeze. Within the framework of a multilevel logistic regression analysis with
129 individuals as the first level and centres as the second level, the “true” wheeze prevalence for each
130 centre is reflected (on a logodds scale) by the random intercept for that centre, and the between-
131 centre variation can be summarised by the variance of the distribution of the random intercepts
132 (τ^2).

133 When introducing explanatory variables the variance τ^2 changes: introducing ecological (centre-
134 level) variables will always lead to a reduction because only the between-centre variance is affected.
135 For individual-level variables, where both the individual-level and centre-level variation are affected,
136 a change in τ^2 can occur in either direction [7].

137 In order to reduce the between-centre variation, an individual-level variable must be either a risk
138 factor (increasing child’s risk of wheezing) and more common in centres with higher prevalence of
139 disease, or a protective factor at the individual level and inversely correlated with the prevalence of
140 disease at the centre level. There are also cases where a risk factor may be inversely correlated with
141 wheeze prevalence at the centre level, or a protective factor may be more common in centres with
142 higher prevalence of disease. In those instances, adjustment for the child-level associations in the
143 multi-level model will increase (not decrease) the between-centre variation (τ^2). Thus, adjustment
144 for individual-level variables can either decrease (“explain away”) or increase (“accentuate”)
145 between-centre differences in disease prevalence.

146 In contrast to continuous outcomes and linear models, the variance at individual level in the logistic
147 model is determined by the binomial distribution of the dichotomous outcome and therefore,
148 models that differ in explanatory variables cannot be compared directly regarding their coefficients
149 and their τ^2 . To allow a direct comparison, we used a scaling method [8], as described in detail
150 elsewhere [7]. Hence we compared the rescaled τ^2 of risk factor models to the rescaled τ^2 of the
151 null model without any explanatory factors.

152 For some risk factors in some centres, the case-control design gives artificially high intercepts
153 because of the stratified subsample is enriched for wheezy children. This was corrected in our multi-
154 level model by using the appropriate sampling weights for wheezy and non-wheezy children in these
155 stratified subsamples [9] (for details see Online Resource).

156

157

158 **Construction of models with explanatory variables and determination of the change in τ^2**

159 A detailed description can be found in the Online Resource. In brief, we first tested all individual level
160 and ecological variables in single risk factor models i.e. only one explanatory variable was introduced.
161 The τ^2 of these models was compared to the τ^2 of the null model: the relative change (in
162 percent) in τ^2 with regard to the τ^2 of the null model was calculated.

163 The individual risk factors to be introduced in multivariate models were chosen from the risk factors
164 that engendered the greatest change in τ^2 . From previous work with the ISAAC data we know that
165 so far adjustment with potential confounders had very little influence on effect estimates in this
166 multicentre international context (see e.g. [10,11])

167 To avoid important losses in the number of children analysed in the multivariate models, we adopted
168 a simple approach to substitute the missing values with mean values (for details see the Online
169 Resource). We also performed analyses stratified by atopy because the relevant environmental risk
170 factors may differ between atopic and non-atopic children reflecting atopic and non-atopic wheeze
171 [1,12].

172

173 All analyses were carried out using Stata releases 10 and 14 using gllamm (<http://www.gllamm.org>).
174 The rescaling of coefficients and τ^2 was carried out according to a do-file developed by the authors
175 and published elsewhere [7].

176

177

178 **RESULTS**

179 Up to 53748 children (depending on availability of risk factor information) from 30 centres in 22
180 countries were included. The prevalence of wheeze in the past year (“recent wheeze”) across the 30
181 centres ranged from 0.8% in Pichincha Province, Ecuador to 25.6% in Uruguaiana, Brazil [1]. Only 2%
182 of the corresponding between centre variation in prevalence could be attributed to binomial
183 sampling error (heterogeneity $I^2 = 98\%$). When the analysis was stratified by skin prick test positivity,
184 the prevalence of recent wheeze among atopic children ranged from 1.1% to 40.5% ($I^2 = 92\%$) and
185 among non-atopic children from 0.5% to 24.1% ($I^2 = 98\%$).

186

187

188 **Single risk factor models:**

189 Individual level environmental variables

190 Table 1 shows the 30 variables ascertained at the individual (child) level that lead to the greatest
191 changes in τ^2 when included, each in turn, in the two-level model. The maximum decrease of τ^2
192 that was related to adjustment for a single individual-level variable was 8.4% for use of a synthetic
193 quilt at present (Table 1, left side). This risk factor had a wide range of prevalence among centres

194 from 1.9% to 87.9%, and was associated with recent wheeze within centres, with an individual-level
195 odds ratio (OR) of 1.33 (95% confidence interval (CI): 1.09 to 1.61).

196 Adjustment for 14 other factors (singly) reduced the scaled τ^2 by more than 2% each. These
197 pertained to bedding, smoking habits of the mother, heating of the home and dampness/mould in
198 the living area.

199 Introducing explanatory individual-level factors into the multi-level model sometimes increased the
200 between-centre variation. The variable resulting in the strongest increase in τ^2 (by 6.8%) was
201 having carpets or rugs in the child's bedroom. This factor had a within-centre OR of 0.78 (95% CI:
202 0.65 to 0.94) and ranged in prevalence among centres from 6.2% to 98%. Adjustment for worm
203 infection, whooping cough infection, tuberculosis infection, no pillow use and cooking with
204 wood/coal at present, each resulted in an increase of more than 2%.

205 Changes made because of the asthma or allergy of the child partly influenced the results, depending
206 on the risk factor. Table E2 in the Online Resource shows the results for the centres that have asked
207 these questions which, depending on the risk factor, encompasses more than half up to most of the
208 affluent centres where one would expect changes to occur more often because of the frequency of
209 allergies and the higher education regarding allergic disease. The change is most marked for carpets
210 and rugs where the OR changes to one. For the other factors small to moderate changes were seen
211 which, given the precision of the estimates, are within the limits of chance. In line with this is the fact
212 that these small changes occurred in both directions when excluding children with changes e.g. an
213 increase in the OR for ETS and a decrease for the mother smoking at present.

214

215 Analyses of individual level variables stratified by allergic sensitization

216 Among participants assessed for allergic sensitization (N=31301), a positive skin prick test was
217 associated at the individual level with recent wheeze (OR 3.3, 95%CI: 2.8 to 4.0). Adjustment for this
218 measure of atopy, which ranged in prevalence across centres from 1.7% to 45.3%, resulted in a 8.5%
219 decrease of between-centre variation in wheeze prevalence.

220 When restricting the population to atopic children and non-atopic children, respectively, the pattern
221 (as shown in Table 2 which contains the same variables as Table 1) only partly corresponded to the
222 one for wheeze overall (Table 1). In general, greater changes in τ^2 were seen among atopic
223 children. While adjustment for synthetic bedding resulted in a higher variance change in atopic
224 children compared to non-atopic children, results for feather (quilt and pillow) were inconsistent.
225 Restricting to children where no changes in bedding occurred, yielded an increase in the OR related
226 to synthetic bedding for atopic children and decrease for non-atopic children. However, the changes
227 of the ORs were well within the limits of precision (i.e. the 95%-CI). Maternal smoking, especially in

228 pregnancy and at present, seemed to be more influential in non-atopic than in atopic children, in
229 terms of the effect of adjustment on between-centre variation.

230 Regarding infections, the changes in variance observed in all children when adjusting for worm
231 infection seemed to be mainly driven by non-atopic children. In contrast, adjustment for whooping
232 cough infection and tuberculosis vaccination had a stronger effect among atopic children, with
233 increases of variance of 7.5% and 15.8%, respectively. In both subgroups many OR were imprecisely
234 estimated so the above observations should be interpreted with caution.

235 The variables inducing the highest changes in τ^2 also differed between atopic and non-atopic
236 children (Table E3 in Online Resource which contains the 30 variables that lead to the highest
237 changes in atopic and non-atopic children, respectively). In atopic children, the numerically most
238 important changes were the increase in variation of 15.8% related to tuberculosis vaccination and
239 the decrease in variation of 15.6% related to synthetic bedding at present. Variables that do not
240 appear in Table 1 but were of importance among atopic children are the number of all siblings (OR
241 1.08, 95%-CI: 1.00 to 1.16; 7.8% increase in τ^2), the number of older siblings (OR 1.08, 95%-CI: 1.01
242 to 1.15; 4.6% increase in τ^2) and measles infection (OR 1.40, 95%-CI: 1.18 to 1.65; 4.4% increase in
243 τ^2) (Table E3 in Online Resource). Among non-atopic children most of the variables with the
244 strongest changes in τ^2 related to indoor air quality (smoking, heating and dampness), but also
245 included bedding and whooping cough.

246 Overall, adjustment for the most influential risk factors tended to lead predominantly to a decrease
247 in variance of prevalence among non-atopic children.; in atopic children, however, adjustment for
248 the most influential risk factors more often resulted in an increase in variance.

249

250 Centre/country level variables

251 Ecological variables introduced into the model generally resulted in markedly higher decreases in
252 τ^2 than those seen for individual level variables (Table 1 and Online Resource Tables E4 and E5).

253 The highest decrease of almost 50% was caused by the centre-level prevalence of contact with a dog
254 in the first year of life (Online Resource Table E4). Of the factors in Table 1, the highest decrease was
255 related to centre-level prevalences of maternal smoking, heating with wood, use of synthetic quilt
256 and tuberculosis vaccination. Ecological factors that appeared to influence notably the wheeze
257 prevalence variation, but which were not strongly associated with wheeze at the individual level,
258 were contact to animals, bedroom sharing and cooked green vegetables (Online Resource Table E4).
259 In comparison with individual level variables, the effect estimates for the centre-level average
260 exposures were imprecise due to the limited number of centres (contrasting with the large number
261 of children for estimation of within-centre associations with individual risk factors). Given this
262 limitation, which also applies to the variables from open access data sources, we chose to put our

263 emphasis on an in depth analysis of the individual-level variables and to not pursue the analysis of
264 the ecological variables with multivariate model.

265 Among the ecological variables obtained from open access data sources, the strongest reduction in
266 variation of wheeze prevalence was linked to the country-level variables: the proportion of the
267 population living in urban areas (32% reduction) and other indicators of affluence such as migration,
268 and annual urban population growth (Table E4 in Online Resource). The most important centre-level
269 variables were related to temperature variability (inverse association with wheeze) and coastal
270 location (positive association with wheeze).

271

272 **Multivariate models**

273 Given the uncertainty regarding estimation of the effect of centre-level variables, we only introduced
274 individual-level variables into the multivariate model. In the model incorporating only variables that
275 resulted in a decrease in between centre variation by 1.5% and more, we obtained a 21% reduction
276 of the between centre prevalence variance τ^2 (Table 3). When risk factors that caused an increase
277 in τ^2 in the univariate models were also introduced, these factors counteracted the influence of
278 factors decreasing τ^2 and the resulting overall change was an increase by 2.4%. The resulting
279 changes in predicted prevalence (converting centre-specific random intercepts from logodds to
280 prevalence) are shown in Figure 1 (for details of the calculation of the predicted prevalence, see
281 Online Resource).

282 In the corresponding models for atopic children, we obtained a decrease of τ^2 by 16.8% and an
283 increase of 11.6%, respectively. In non-atopic children, both models yielded a decrease in τ^2 , by
284 27% and 16%, respectively.

285 Among the 30703 children in the multivariate model from 29 centres on whom skin prick tests were
286 performed, adjustment for individual environmental factors that decreased τ^2 reduced τ^2 by
287 23%. Adjusting further for atopy (as measured by skin prick test positivity) increased the reduction in
288 τ^2 to 31%. The corresponding results when all environmental factors (that increased or decreased
289 τ^2) were included were a 9.3% increase before adjustment for atopy and a 0.4% reduction after
290 this adjustment. These τ^2 differentials are broadly consistent with the effect of adjustment for
291 atopy as a single risk factor (8.5% reduction, see above).

292

293

294 **DISCUSSION**

295 To our knowledge this is the first analysis investigating the influence of risk factors on the
296 international variation of disease symptoms. Single environmental factors and aeroallergen
297 sensitisation (atopy) measured at the individual (child) level each explained less than 10% of the

298 between-centre variation in wheeze prevalence”, and adjustment for some environmental factors
299 accentuated the variation in prevalence. When all the most influential child-level variables were
300 modelled together, the variation in prevalence was little changed (2.4% increase without including
301 atopy, 0.4% decrease if atopy was included). .

302 So far attempts to unravel the influence of risk factors on prevalence differences have been limited
303 to the comparison of two locations [4,5,13]. Those studies investigated smaller prevalence
304 differences of 3.7 vs 1.2% [13], 5.8 vs 3.4% [5] and 27 vs 17% [4]. In the Ethiopian study [13],
305 adjusting for housing and mattress material did reduce the magnitude of the OR between rural and
306 urban location for wheeze and sensitization to house dust mite. In the Chinese study [5], the factors
307 that reduced the difference between mainland China and Hong Kong most were foam pillow, cooking
308 with gas, damp housing and raw vegetables. The generalizability of such two centre comparisons is
309 uncertain but in our study we could improve this by analysing 30 diverse study centres.

310 In such a multi-centre study, the variation in disease prevalence between the centres reflects three
311 components: sampling variation (the play of chance when recruiting individual children); true (non-
312 sampling) variation (between children and between centres) which can be explained by measured
313 risk factors or protective factors which themselves vary in prevalence among the study centres; and
314 true variation between centres which is not (yet) explained. We investigated the changes in this third
315 component (unexplained variation between centres) as different combinations of risk factors or
316 protective factors were included in a multi-level logistic regression model. In such a model, the
317 centre-specific prevalences are reflected by a set of intercepts (log-odds) and the parameter τ^2
318 measures the variance of these centre-specific intercepts.

319 The individual level environmental and life style factors that caused the highest and most consistent
320 changes in τ^2 were factors related to bedding material, indoor air quality, mostly smoking, and
321 infectious diseases. However, while centre-level variables always result in a decrease of the variation
322 our results illustrate that adjustment for individual risk factors can actually lead to changes in τ^2 in
323 both directions. Overall, individual risk factors explained only a small to moderate amount of the
324 prevalence variation.

325 Several of the most influential child-level variables leading to changes in τ^2 were potentially prone
326 to reverse causality, if changes had been made to the home environment following (and due to) the
327 onset of asthma or allergy in the child. The bias thereby introduced could be in either direction. For
328 instance, avoidance of pets by allergic families would tend to attenuate a harmful association of pets
329 with wheeze in the child. In contrast, avoidance of feather bedding following the child’s asthma
330 diagnosis would accentuate risks associated with synthetic pillows and bedding. Reverse causality is
331 less of a concern for exposures in the first year of life, although selective avoidance by allergic
332 families could still introduce reverse causality biases. Our analyses restricted to children whose

333 parents reported making no such changes are generally reassuring. Except for carpets, the
334 associations with the environmental factors were not affected substantially and making this
335 allowance for possible reverse causality had less effect than the centre selection in this
336 complementary analysis.

337 Therefore reverse causality does not seem to influence much our broad conclusions regarding the
338 amount of centre-level variation that could be explained by the investigated environmental factors
339 Nevertheless, these measured factors may actually reflect some other underlying unmeasured
340 risk/protective factor. If the “true” determinant is measured imperfectly, the change in τ^2 will be
341 only partial.

342 With the cross-sectional design we cannot safely infer causality even for the influential risk factors
343 regarding the reduction of τ^2 . These factors may actually reflect some other underlying
344 unmeasured risk/protective factor. Because they therefore measure imperfectly the unmeasured
345 factor the reduction in τ^2 will be only partial.

346 A positive skin prick test resulted in the same variance reduction as the most prominent
347 environmental risk factor. This occurred despite the fact that non-atopic asthma is important
348 worldwide [1] but seems plausible given the strong association of atopy with wheeze within centres
349 and the wide range of atopy prevalence across our study centres. In our previous work, we have
350 found an attributable fraction of atopy on asthma of 40.7% among the affluent centres and 20.3%
351 among the non-affluent centres that already highlighted the importance of atopy on the population
352 level especially for the affluent world [1]. Therefore, risk factors influencing strongly the
353 development of atopy can also be expected to account for some of the international variation in
354 wheeze prevalence, in addition to factors influencing asthma through mechanisms independent of
355 allergy.

356 In our dataset, ecological risk factors had a considerably greater explanatory potential than individual
357 risk factors, consistent with findings from social sciences regarding the importance of so-called
358 contextual factors. For an epidemiological example, it has been found that the wealth of a
359 neighbourhood has an effect on adult asthma prevalence independently of the individual’s
360 socioeconomic status [14] reducing the between centre variation by 37%. For several risk factors in
361 the child’s environment one could imagine a similar scenario as children move not only within their
362 homes but are in contact with their friends’ and extended families’ homes and public locations. For
363 example, it has been shown that community prevalence of cat keeping is a statistically significant
364 determinant of mattress cat allergen levels for non-cat owners [15].

365 The alternative explanation is that these ecological factors are indicators of different life styles
366 between regions of the world, which would be the underlying overall cause. Indeed, Pearce and
367 Douwes, in their review, propose that there is a Western “package” of environmental and social

368 factors that influence asthma prevalence while there is no known risk factor that would be able to
369 explain on its own either prevalence differences between populations or changes observed within
370 populations over time [16].

371 In our analysis, the variance explained by average centre-level exposure was generally not
372 diminished when incorporating the corresponding individual-level variable (Online Resource Table
373 E6). We therefore interpret these centre-level correlations as an indirect indication of the potential
374 role of contextual factors, and/or a surrogate for undiscovered individual-level or population-level
375 determinants. A strength of the present analysis is that it is the first multicentre comparison, made
376 possible by adapting new methodology (i.e. Bauer's scaling method [8]) and therefore being able to
377 compare multilevel logistic regression models that contain different individual risk factors. The study
378 involved a large number of children, therefore the power for investigating individual risk factors is
379 high.

380 A limitation of our study is that even 30 centres worldwide represent a relatively small number of
381 potential centres especially when investigating centre-level variables and consequently uncertainty
382 around the estimates of between-centre variation is high. When looking at the estimates of τ^2 and
383 its standard error (of the null model), our estimate of 0.32 (SE 0.15) shows similar imprecision to
384 some other studies, e.g. 0.052 (SE 0.026) for the variance in psychiatric health care utilization [17]
385 (235 neighbourhoods) but higher than in other studies, e.g. the study on asthma prevalence in the
386 287 Chicago neighbourhoods (0.14 (SE 0.02) [18]). This calls for caution when gauging the
387 quantitative importance of the risk factors and part of the changes observed may well lie within the
388 range of uncertainty. To our knowledge, no paper has so far tackled this issue but generally just the
389 percentage of change was reported ([14,17,19,20]).

390 Our approach to handling missing observations was a fairly crude one. Unfortunately, almost none of
391 the currently available statistical software offers missing imputation for dichotomous variables in a
392 multilevel framework. However, in sensitivity analyses treating several centres with risk factor
393 information the same as a centre having no information for risk factors, our method to replace the
394 values for all children in the centre with the mean international prevalence proved quite robust i.e.
395 comparable to the original results. Overall, substituting the missing values with mean values is a
396 conservative approach which is expected to lead to an underestimation of the change in variance.

397 In conclusion, we found several risk factors, both at the individual level and the centre (population)
398 level, that explained part of the large worldwide variation in prevalence of wheeze among children.
399 Overall, individual risk factors explained a moderate amount of the variation in this international
400 study, the most important remediable exposures being bedding material and maternal smoking.
401 Atopy, measured by aeroallergen skin prick tests, also explained a proportion of the worldwide
402 variation in wheeze prevalence. Our multi-centre study design overcomes the limitations of two-

403 centre comparisons and the multi-level modelling approach permits adjustment for the effect of
404 individual-level risk factors, which are excluded in most conventional ecological (centre-level)
405 analyses.

406

407 **Appendix: The ISAAC Phase Two Study group**

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Table 1: Wheeze prevalence – change in the between-centre variance tau² by individual level variables and centre level variables^a

Risk factor	Individual level variables (30 centres; 45297 – 51081 children ^b)			Centre level variables ^c (30 centres; 53748 children ^d)		
	prevalence range	relative change in tau ² (%)	OR (LCL-UCL)	relative change in tau ² (%)	OR per 10% increase in risk factor prevalence (LCL-UCL)	centre-level correlation between wheeze prevalence and risk factor prevalence
Bedding: synthetic quilt (present)	1.9-87.9	-8.4	1.33 (1.09-1.61)	-23.6	1.15 (1.04-1.26)	0.5661
Floor covering: fitted or loose carpets (present)	6.2-98.1	6.8	0.78 (0.65-0.94)	-6.6	1.05 (0.98-1.13)	0.2553
Bedding: synthetic quilt (fy)	2.2-75.2	-6.7	1.28 (1.08-1.53)	-21.8	1.15 (1.04-1.28)	0.5546
Bedding: feather quilt (present)	1.2-61.7	-6.7	0.56 (0.47-0.65)	-8.2	0.88 (0.76-1.04)	-0.2701
Mother smoked during the child's fy of life	0.1-43.8	-5.2	1.23 (1.12-1.36)	-32.7	1.27 (1.11-1.45)	0.6252
Mother smoked during pregnancy	0.2-33.9	-4.8	1.28 (1.13-1.44)	-34.4	1.38 (1.16-1.64)	0.6580
Mother smokes at present	0.1-48.3	-4.1	1.19 (1.07-1.32)	-24.1	1.20 (1.06-1.37)	0.5677
Pillow: feather (present)	0.4-91.9	-3.9	0.60 (0.42-0.85)	-3.3	0.95 (0.86-1.05)	-0.2822
Disease: worm infection	2.4-99.9	3.4	1.31 (1.03-1.65)	-5.0	0.89 (0.78-1.02)	0.1963
Disease: whooping cough	0.6-48.9	3.1	1.62 (1.46-1.80)	-0.8	0.96 (0.81-1.14)	-0.1100
Bedding: feather quilt (fy)	1.2-86.2	-3.0	0.66 (0.58-0.75)	-3.2	0.94 (0.82-1.07)	-0.2075
Heating inside home (fy)	0.8-98.5	-2.9	1.18 (1.04-1.35)	-5.8	1.05 (0.97-1.15)	0.2913
Heating: wood (fy)	0.1-79.6	-2.9	1.22 (0.96-1.55)	-5.7	1.06 (0.96-1.18)	0.4170
Damp or mould (fy)	6.5-36.7	-2.8	1.65 (1.43-1.89)	-5.9	1.24 (0.89-1.73)	0.4396
Heating inside home (present)	0.8-99.9	-2.6	1.11 (1.02-1.21)	-9.0	1.06 (0.99-1.14)	0.4308
Heating: wood (present)	0-77.2	-2.6	1.10	-24.4	1.16	0.6639

Vaccination: tuberculosis	16.5-99.7	2.4	(0.90-1.34)	-21.2	(1.05-1.29)	-0.3518
			1.07		0.90	
			(0.94-1.21)		(0.83-0.97)	
Pillow: no pillow (fy)	2.7-56.1	2.3	(0.69-0.99)	-8.9	(0.97-1.34)	0.0979
			0.82		1.14	
Pillow: feather (fy)	1.3-75.8	-2.2	(0.71-0.94)	-4.4	(0.83-1.05)	-0.3412
			0.82		0.94	
Cooking: coal/wood (present)	0-99.3	2.1	(1.11-1.31)	-2.6	(0.84-1.06)	0.1318
			1.21		0.94	
Damp or mould (present)	2.2-47.1	-2.1	(1.29-1.76)	-2.6	(0.88-1.35)	0.3975
			1.51		1.09	
Pillow: synthetic fibre (fy)	1.1-85.4	2.0	(1.06-1.42)	-2.4	(0.85-1.07)	0.0054
			1.23		0.95	
Pillow: foam (fy)	0-79.9	-1.7	(0.97-1.24)	-16.3	(1.02-1.33)	0.6186
			1.10		1.17	
Cooking: coal/wood (fy)	0-99.2	1.7	(0.93-1.37)	-5.0	(0.83-1.05)	-0.1531
			1.13		0.93	
Cooking: electricity (fy)	0.3-99.2	1.5	(0.72-1.03)	-0.6	(0.94-1.09)	0.1574
			0.86		1.01	
Heating inside home / Cooking: gas, oil, coal, coke, wood (present)	0.8-100	-1.4	(0.95-1.22)	-6.0	(0.97-1.15)	0.2283
			1.08		1.06	
ETS: 10 or more cigarettes	4.5-34.4	-1.3	(1.03-1.32)	-12.8	(1.00-1.77)	0.5051
			1.17		1.33	
Air conditioning: present	1.2-95.4	-1.3	(0.85-1.01)	-9.3	(0.82-1.02)	-0.4027
			0.93		0.91	
Breastfeeding 6 months or more	13.5-99.4	-1.2	(0.86-1.06)	-4.4	(0.85-1.03)	0.0776
			0.95		0.94	
Cooking: gas (fy)	0.5-98.9	-1.1	(0.95-1.29)	-1.8	(0.96-1.10)	0.0215
			1.10		1.03	

a: This table contains all variables that lead to a change of >1% in tau² when investigated as individual level variables. b: differences in the number of children relate to different numbers of missing values for the respective questions: this is because, in the case of stratified subsamples, we did not impute missing values (details see Online Resource); c: each child has the value of the mean exposure for children in its centre, i.e. all children in the same centre have the same contextual exposure; d.: all children with information on wheeze got assigned a value; fy = first year of life of the child; ETS = Environmental tobacco smoke;

Table 2: Wheeze prevalence among atopic and non-atopic children - change in the between-centre variance tau² by individual level variables^a.

Risk factor	Wheeze among atopics (29 centres; 6390 – 7302 children ^b)			Wheeze among non-atopics (29 centres; 20335 – 23565 children ^b)		
	prevalence range	relative change in tau ² (%)	OR (LCL-UCL)	prevalence range	relative change in tau ² (%)	OR (LCL-UCL)
Bedding: synthetic quilt (present)	4.0-89.8	-15.6	1.54 (1.25-1.90)	3.8-88.3	-4.4	1.29 (1.02-1.62)
Floor covering: fitted or loose carpets (present)	3.9-98.5	8.4	0.68 (0.56-0.83)	6.2-98.2	0.6	0.98 (0.77-1.24)
Bedding: synthetic quilt (fy)	0-85.0	-10.8	1.36 (0.99-1.86)	1.5-74.0	-4.1	1.33 (0.99-1.78)
Bedding: feather quilt (present)	0-59.1	-1.1	0.62 (0.48-0.80)	0.9-61.7	-9.4	0.62 (0.49-0.77)
Mother smoked during the child's fy of life	0-45.7	-3.0	1.20 (1.03-1.39)	0.1-45.4	-7.2	1.50 (1.33-1.69)
Mother smoked during pregnancy	0-32.2	-3.8	1.27 (1.01-1.61)	0.2-35.6	-4.4	1.40 (1.18-1.66)
Mother smokes at present	0-49.5	-1.9	1.16 (1.03-1.32)	0.1-50.4	-4.9	1.37 (1.23-1.52)
Pillow: feather (present)	0-84.8	-2.3	0.66 (0.39-1.13)	0.4-93.8	-2.7	0.81 (0.62-1.07)
Disease: worm infection	2.3-99.4	-0.7	0.96 (0.78-1.18)	2.8-100.0	1.3	1.58 (1.26-1.98)
Disease: whooping cough	0-44.1	7.5	1.86 (1.50-2.31)	0.7-45.6	3.6	1.55 (1.26-1.90)
Bedding: feather quilt (fy)	0-85.9	-2.9	0.63 (0.44-0.90)	1.0-86.7	-3.7	0.68 (0.43-1.08)
Heating inside home (fy)	1.0-98.2	-1.6	1.36 (1.09-1.69)	0.5-96.3	-3.1	1.24 (0.97-1.57)
Heating: wood (fy)	0-80.0	-2.5	1.48 (1.26-1.74)	0.1-79.2	-2.5	1.29 (0.92-1.82)
Damp or mould (fy)	5.6-45.8	-2.7	1.80 (1.50-2.16)	5.6-38.0	-3.1	1.62 (1.29-2.05)
Heating inside home (present)	1.0-96.6	-1.9	1.17 (0.98-1.40)	0.6-98.4	-5.0	1.22 (0.99-1.50)
Heating: wood (present)	0-75.0	-5.9	1.30	0-78.1	-4.0	1.24

Vaccination: tuberculosis	14.3-100.0	15.8	(1.04-1.64)	16.2-99.7	-2.0	(0.93-1.65)
			1.47 (1.10-1.98)			0.92 (0.65-1.29)
Pillow: no pillow (fy)	0-57.1	2.0	0.89 (0.78-1.02)	2.6-56.0	1.6	0.77 (0.55-1.07)
Pillow: feather (fy)	1.9-82.1	2.3	1.21 (0.58-2.52)	1.1-77.1	-1.7	0.75 (0.42-1.32)
Cooking: coal/wood (present)	0-100.0	1.2	1.22 (0.86-1.74)	0-99.5	0.8	1.39 (1.18-1.64)
Damp or mould (present)	0-51.9	-2.6	1.61 (1.36-1.90)	1.1-48.1	-2.9	1.41 (1.09-1.83)
Pillow: synthetic fibre (fy)	0.5-97.0	-0.1	1.02 (0.65-1.60)	0.3-85.5	4.6	1.30 (0.85-1.99)
Pillow: foam (fy)	0-77.2	-1.8	1.11 (0.85-1.44)	0-82.2	-2.0	1.13 (0.95-1.35)
Cooking: coal/wood (fy)	0-94.4	0.6	1.13 (0.87-1.45)	0-99.2	2.0	1.25 (0.99-1.57)
Cooking: electricity (fy)	1.0-99.3	3.4	0.74 (0.55-0.99)	0.2-99.2	0.2	0.85 (0.69-1.06)
Heating inside home / Cooking: gas, oil, coal, coke, wood (present)	0-100.0	-3.1	1.25 (0.99-1.57)	0.9-100.0	-0.2	1.01 (0.89-1.14)
ETS: 10 or more cigarettes	4.5-38.3	-0.1	1.10 (0.79-1.53)	4.8-34.5	-2.4	1.28 (1.11-1.48)
Air conditioning: present	0-97.0	-0.4	0.83 (0.70-0.98)	0.7-96.9	-2.0	0.91 (0.77-1.06)
Breastfeeding 6 months or more	8.4-100.0	-0.2	0.99 (0.81-1.21)	12.6-99.4	-0.3	0.91 (0.82-1.01)
Cooking: gas (fy)	0-99.0	-0.7	1.39 (1.10-1.76)	0.6-98.9	0.7	0.95 (0.82-1.10)

a: This table contains the same variables as Table 1 listing the variables that resulted in the strongest changes of tau² in the whole population (as opposed to non-atopic or atopic children only, which is shown in Table E2 in the Online Resource)b: differences in the number of children relate to different numbers of missing values for the respective questions; ; fy = first year of life of the child; ETS = Environmental tobacco smoke

Table 3: Wheeze prevalence - change in the between-centre variance tau² by individual level variables in multivariate models

	All children (N centres=30, N children=50,852 ^a)	Atopic children (N centres=29, N children=7,285 ^{a§})	Non-atopic children (N centres=29, N children=23,418 ^a)
	Relative change in tau ² (%)	Relative change in tau ² (%)	Relative change in tau ² (%)
factors that result in increase or decrease in tau²			
Bedding: synthetic quilt at present	-8.4	-16.4	-4.3
add Floor covering: fitted or loose carpet at present	-1.0	-5.2	-6.3
add Bedding: feather quilt at present	-3.7	-3.3	-14.1
add Mother smoked during first year of life	-8.2	-5.0	-20.0
add Worm infection	-4.4	-6.5	-19.0
add Whooping cough	-3.3	-4.7	-16.9
add Heating inside home fy	-5.7	-4.9	-19.7
add Damp or mould fy	-7.9	-5.7	-22.8
add Vaccination: tuberculosis	-3.2	4.1	-20.0
add Pillow: no pillow fy	-0.9	5.6	-18.2
add Cooking: coal/wood at present	2.3	7.3	-15.3
add Pillow: foam fy	2.2	6.7	-15.7
add Cooking: electricity fy	2.4	11.6	-15.9
only factors that result in a decrease in tau² in all children			
Bedding: synthetic quilt at present	-8.4	-16.4	-4.3
add Bedding: feather quilt at present	-10.5	-13.4	-12.0
add Mother smoked during first year of life	-15.0	-15.1	-17.6
add Heating inside home fy	-17.2	-15.0	-21.3
add Damp or mould fy	-19.0	-15.2	-24.9
add Pillow: foam fy	-20.5	-16.8	-26.8

fy: first year of life of the child; for choice of variables for multivariate model see Methods section in the Online Resource. a: in the stratified subsamples only children included with risk factor information were included resulting in 50852 children (in contrast to the 53748 children who had information on wheeze).

Figure legend:

Fig.1: Predicted prevalence in the centres in the null model and after incorporating the risk factors – for the latter a reference population with risk factor prevalences equal to the arithmetic mean of all centres was used. Model with decrease and increase τ^2 : risk factors are included irrespective of the direction of change in the between-centre variance; Model with decrease τ^2 : only risk factors that lead to a reduction in the between-centre variance are included for illustrative purpose. (for detailed methods see Online Resource).

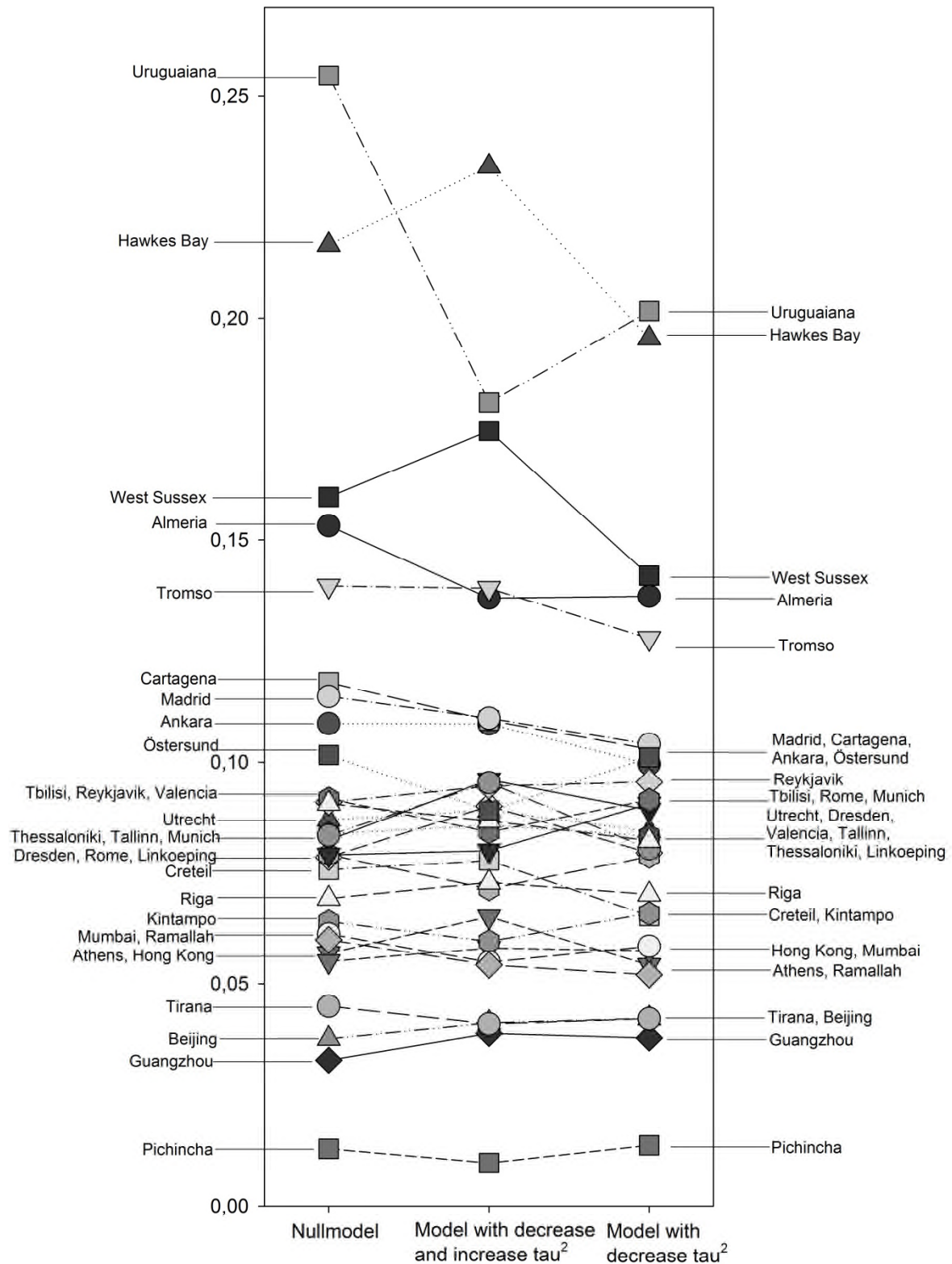


Figure 1: Predicted prevalence in the centres in the null model and after incorporating the risk factors. Model with decrease and increase τ : risk factors are included irrespective of the direction of change in the between-centre variance; Model with decrease τ : only risk factors that lead to a reduction in the between-centre variance are included for illustrative purpose.